

# The Citizen

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*"There are some who desire to know with the sole purpose that they may know, and it is curiosity; and some who desire to know that they may be known, and it is base ambition; and some who desire to know that they may sell their knowledge for wealth and honor, and it is base avarice; but there are some, also, who desire to know that they may be edified, and it is prudence, and some who desire to know that they may help others, and it is charity."*—S. BERNARD.

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# The Citizen

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## Life and Education.

PARDEE HALL, the handsome building erected at Lafayette College by the late Ario Pardee, was largely destroyed by fire on the morning of December 18. The central structure contained the mineralogical and geological cabinets, including very valuable collections of European and native minerals, and of coal fossils. The west wing contained Professor Thomas C. Porter's very complete flora of Pennsylvania, which fortunately was saved; and the valuable Ward Library of History and Political Science. The destruction of the Ward Library is felt to be a very severe and irreparable loss, as in addition to the books, it contained fine collections of autographs, MSS., and historical prints. While the fire insurance, which has been satisfactorily adjusted, will replace the building and the general equipment, President Warfield is obliged to appeal to the friends and alumni of the College for aid in replacing the library and collections.

Two years ago the Philadelphia street railways were consolidated by a company which guaranteed to pay dividends ranging from 20 per cent. to 67 per cent. on actual investment to eleven of its important constituent companies. The public quietly permitted this Union Traction Company to undertake the administration of the railways, knowing that the company was organized upon a plan which requires the management to earn dividends upon a capitalization which is nearly four times the real investment. And now the acquiescent public complains of poor service, and protests against the recent limitation of transfer privileges. Nothing could be more unreasonable. The management of the company is highly efficient, and it is probably giving the very best service and the lowest rates of fare which the conditions permit. So the citizen of Philadelphia should summon his philosophy and cling contentedly if he must to a strap in a car which seats twenty-six passengers and frequently carries sixty. He should cheerfully pay eight cents for a transfer and rigidly observe its limitations. He should strive to conquer his reluctance to patronize a company which exacts from its employees twelve hours of arduous service daily. The financial organization which he tacitly approved and which he tolerates requires all these sacrifices on his part. The more cheerfully he makes them the more comfortable the situation will be for all concerned. However, while grumbling is most illogical under present conditions, the citizens

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of Philadelphia should not forget that when they are ready to make a serious effort to get adequate street-car service at reasonable rates this boon is within their reach. By the terms of an ordinance of 1857 a large number of our principal railway companies operate their roads under a contract which contains this clause: "And the city of Philadelphia reserves the right any time to purchase the same by paying the *original cost of said road or roads and cars at a fair valuation.*" The validity of this contract has never been passed upon by a court, but there is excellent reason in the decisions of our Supreme Court in similar cases for believing that the contract is good. When Philadelphians finally come to the conclusion that they cannot afford to pay more than 70 per cent. dividend on actual investment to two of the old companies, 42 per cent. to another, 40 per cent. to a fourth, 31 per cent. to two more, and so on down the list, then they should cease from unavailing complaint and assert their reserved right.

IN the last number of THE CITIZEN we commented upon the strike of the English engineers from the point of view of those who assume that an eight-hour day is an end to be desired. We now propose to look at the matter from another side. We adhere to the thesis that the forces of civilization are tending towards more leisure for wage-earners. This follows from the fact that production has increased more rapidly than population. Yet notwithstanding this fact wages are in general higher than they have ever been before, and while the hours of labor are shorter, the purchasing power of money is perhaps greater than at any time in the century. In brief, wage-earners were never better off; for a generation there has been a steady improvement in their condition and prospects. This result certainly speaks well for our civilization, and the forces that have tended to produce it are probably by no means exhausted. It may be said to be "reasonable and proper" to get, if you can, for eight hours' work the wages for which it was once necessary to work ten hours, but to be quite reasonable it would be well to take care that the opportunity to get work on any terms is not jeopardized by threatening the life of an industry. It is equally reasonable and proper for a railway company to add a mill per "mile-ton" to a given rate, if it can do so without losing its business; but the time comes in any competition when to ask more for a commodity or service is a mistake leading to disaster. Men's habits, especially for good, change much more slowly than the conditions under which they labor. More leisure by two hours a day does not necessarily mean so much

more time spent in an improving manner, any more than entire leisure implies a maximum of spiritual and intellectual development. England has had in the past certain trades in which men, women, and even young children—children never to grow to full stature—worked fourteen, sixteen, and more hours a day under vile conditions. The trade-unions, and the public conscience, when it had a chance to ally itself with a strong movement on the part of the laborers themselves, have in many cases altered these conditions for the better, but there are still occupations in which the hours of work are excessive, the wages barely enough to keep body and soul together, and the conditions of life and work unwholesome in the extreme. It is the weak who are the tenants of the sweat-shops, and although they have sympathy, it does not take the militant attitude that benevolence assumes when a powerful union is fighting an even battle—not to escape from a peculiarly hard lot, but to exact from the masters concessions that threaten the very existence of England's pre-eminence in branches of trade which not long ago were peculiarly hers. The engineers' union was quite selfishly "going for all it could get," and it has transpired that the motive for demanding an eight-hour day was not so much a desire to read Ruskin as a purpose to have work for more men. The same motive is at the bottom of the "one man one machine" contention. In other words, the masters were asked to employ 20 per cent. more men, which is a little worse for the employers than a demand for 20 per cent. more wages. Again, the men insisted that all who do the same class of work should receive the same pay. Compare the English manufactories, subject to such regulations, with American shops in which the work is paid for by the piece, the men work ten hours, and each man runs as many machines as he can, knowing that a high rate of production upon his part means for him not only more wages but promotion. Under such conditions for each country, if there were no other competitors, English foreign trade would pass rapidly to the United States, and the leisure of the English engineer would perhaps oppress him more than a ten-hour day.

As for compulsory arbitration, it is interesting to contrast with Dr. Albert Shaw's opinion—quoted in our January issue—that one effect of the English engineers' strike has been "the sudden accession of many thoughtful men to the ranks of the advocates of compulsory arbitration"—with the attitude towards this question of a jurist whose opinions have always been held in great respect by the Philadelphia bar. The late Richard C. McMurtrie, in a paper written August, 1892, said of arbitration: "To

my mind this means slavery, which no one at the present day would urge or even desire, or it is a phrase with no meaning, and this is so plain as to be self-evident." He shows that so long as so-called arbitrators "can do no more than suggest or advise or counsel, there is nothing whatever of arbitration"; that "arbitration means a decision by a third person, which both parties may be compelled to obey," and he says towards the end of his paper: "Now, this thing called arbitration in respect to the making of contracts between employed and employer is nothing more or less than substituting some one for the employer to determine the questions that must be determined before the relation of employer and employed can exist. It is not sufficient that the servant can leave the place at any moment that he pleases, nor that he combine with his fellow-servants to do this at any moment when the consequences are ruinous to the employer, and thus exact unreasonable wages. It is not sufficient that he can enforce any contract and can be made to perform none. He must have the right to compel the surrender of the control of the business to himself or to some third person, and this solely to coerce the employer in contracting. If this power is to be created by the state, it is clear that the persons exercising it are to be the conductors of the business, while the person who furnishes the capital and bears the risk does not select the master or manager, nor determine what contracts he may make. Whoever these persons may be, they are state officials dictating the essentials to any business requiring human aid or co-operation. . . . The upshot of this is, the law does not furnish any mode of compelling obedience to any dictate of an arbitrator in such matters. Nothing that produces such results could be enforced, because it would be domestic slavery; anything short of this is mere advice, which no one can oblige himself to obey. The remedy, and the only one for the successful party to the arbitration compatible with personal liberty, is damages for non-performance, which could be enforced by, but not against, the man. And the whole proceeds on the absurd theory that a stranger can better determine what ought to be the terms of a contract than the parties to it; which is paternal government, and that is the worst thing the world has yet seen except anarchy."

THREE plans for the improvement of the monetary system of the United States have been brought into prominence during the last few weeks. In view of the fact that money is a subject about which men are seldom in agreement, it is a little remarkable that these three plans are substantially in accord as to the

evils of the system and as to certain remedies which should be adopted. The plans are proposed by President McKinley, by Secretary Gage, and by the Monetary Commission of the Indianapolis Convention. The President in his message to Congress recommended that hereafter whenever the revenues shall permit, the greenbacks paid into the Treasury shall be laid aside and not reissued. Secretary Gage's plan has the same end in view. In his report to Congress he recommends the refunding of the national debt by the issue of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. bonds and an additional issue of \$200,000,000, the proceeds of which shall be devoted to the purchase and retirement of greenbacks. The vacuum thus created in the currency of the country he would fill with national bank notes. The Monetary Commission recommends that all the government credit money be made redeemable on demand in gold, that the national banks be allowed to issue notes against their general assets, and that greenbacks be canceled as rapidly as bank notes are issued to take their place in the circulation. The Commission's plan provides for the extinction of the greenback at the end of ten years. If the surplus revenue is not adequate, then short-time bonds are to be issued. It will be noticed that these three plans all aim to get rid of the greenback. It is assumed to be the most dangerous element in the currency. It is the instrument which enables bullion brokers easily to get gold from the government reserve, for it is the government's promise to pay in coin, and coin this government cannot honorably construe to mean anything but gold. The President's suggestion aims at nothing more, and would be most excellent if there were any certainty that the next half dozen years would yield a surplus rather than a deficit. There is no such certainty, and therefore his suggestion is not received favorably by men who wish the soundness of our monetary system to be beyond question. The greenbacks are a demand obligation of the government, and are part of the nation's debt as much as any of the bonds. The issuing of bonds to provide for their cancellation does not increase the national debt, it merely changes the form of the debt. Inasmuch as the greenbacks can be used at times to destroy the confidence of the people in the dollars with which they do business, common sense demands that we get them out of the way if we can, and use something else in their place as a medium of exchange. For the accomplishment of this purpose there is little choice between the plans of Secretary Gage and the Monetary Commission. Each provides directly for the removal of the greenback from the currency by the use of surplus revenues if possible, by an issue of bonds if necessary.

Our currency system is, however, defective in another particular. It is a fact which business men well understand, that the country's need of currency is ever varying. The supply of money which will transact the business of June is never sufficient to do the business of October. In the spring the need for money as a medium of exchange is always less than in the fall, when the great crop movements of the country get under way. Our present monetary system is utterly incapable of adapting itself to this seasonal ebb and flow of the demand for money. In consequence, in the fall Western bankers are obliged to reduce their balances in New York by ordering shipments of currency, and New York bankers, in order to prevent panic among their own customers, are obliged to reduce their balances in London by the sale of sterling bills until the importation of gold results. To be sure, this process does finally secure an increase of the currency supply, but not until after an interval during which borrowers are distressed and many business interests are in jeopardy. Our monetary system is rigid, like that of Great Britain, and we have no single great banking institution like the Bank of England to regulate the in and outflow of specie. To remedy this defect of our currency — lack of elasticity — Secretary Gage proposes that national banks be allowed to issue an emergency circulation equal to 25 per cent. of this capital upon the payment of a tax of 2 per cent. upon such circulation. This emergency circulation is based upon bank assets and not upon bonds, and it is assumed that it will not be issued except when rising rates of interest indicate an increasing demand for money. This plan, which is suggested by the experience of the Imperial Bank of Germany, would undoubtedly render our currency more flexible than it is at present, but it is open to objection. It is to be feared that in the West and South the tax of 2 per cent. would be found no bar to the issue of the emergency circulation even in ordinary times, so that in the autumn stress caused by the crop movements, the banks, having already exhausted their note privileges, would be unable to satisfy the increased demands of their customers. Inasmuch as Secretary Gage's plan provides that the note shall be guaranteed by the government, it is evident that the notes would not remain in the vicinity of the issuing bank, but would go into general circulation exactly as does the national bank note at the present time. These, however, are not serious objections. If a tax of 2 per cent. is found too small, it can be raised to a figure that will hold back the emergency issue except in times of unusual need. Secretary Gage's plan has in its favor the fact that it is merely a modification of the present system,

and will therefore be easily understood by bankers. Its adoption would undoubtedly result in a considerable expansion of bank-note circulation, for the circulation would be more profitable than at present. The Secretary estimates that the bank circulation, if his plan was adopted, would amount to \$530,000,000, where at present it is only \$220,000,000. Inflation of the currency would be prevented by the retirement of at least \$200,000,000 government notes.

The Monetary Commission recommends a radical change in our banking system. Its plan provides for the issue of bank notes based upon the general assets of the banks, protected by redemption and safety funds in the hands of the government. During the next ten years the notes will be secured by a deposit of bonds equal to 25 per cent. of the circulation, which cannot exceed the capital. To prevent inflation, government notes are to be retired dollar for dollar, as the new bank notes appear, and all issues in excess of 60 per cent. of a bank's capital will be taxed. This plan would certainly make our bank money more flexible than at present, and thus would tend to lessen the pressure upon the National Treasury for gold for export purposes. The bank notes are made a legal tender between banks and in payment of most dues to the government. It is to be feared that this legal-tender provision will prove fatal to the usefulness of the bank note, for it thereby becomes a modified form of government credit money, and hence will not be promptly rushed in for redemption as the country's need for money lessens. In the hands of individuals such a bank note would be practically as serviceable as a greenback. However, this defect is not a dangerous one, and can easily be remedied in the light of experience.

It will be a cause for congratulation if Congress can be persuaded to adopt either the plan of Secretary Gage or that of the Commission. Each provides for the separation of the Treasury into two divisions, one for fiscal purposes, the other for the issue and redemption of demand obligations. Each also makes it clear that this government means gold when it promises to pay dollars. Such provisions, if enacted into law, would have a most bracing effect upon all form of enterprise. The country is now doing business upon the gold standard. Whether monometallism is better than bimetallism, or whether silver is a better standard than gold, are theoretical questions that may be decided in the future. Such controversy has little bearing upon the practical needs of the day. Our business interests now rest upon a gold base. Let us make that base as broad and firm as possible.

### The Sixty-seventh Exhibition of the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts.

The sixty-seventh annual exhibition of the Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts, now open to the public, has many claims to be regarded as a national rather than a local exhibition. Of the four hundred and seventy-five oils and three hundred water-colors, less than half a score are contributed by foreign artists, and only one of the foreign canvases is of much importance. The work of the American artists represented in the exhibition is almost cosmopolitan in character. The London, Paris, and Glasgow schools are all represented. The friction between the impressionists and their more conservative brethren, which has lately split the Society of American Artists, is not here apparent. Radicals, conservatives, impressionists, tonists, here hang together, at least for a time. With but few exceptions all the strong men, whether resident at home or abroad, have sent canvases to this most striking show.

With the exception of portraits, the exhibition is one of studies—not picture compositions. Men are painting their impressions, are striving for technique, for tone. There is little evidence of the influence of literature or romance. But there is abundant evidence of a progressive spirit—not erratic or whimsical, as in previous years, but sane and full of solid promise.

The portraits, it is to be regretted, are the predominant feature of the exhibition. Evidently the material appreciation of art by the well-to-do is largely an appreciation of the painter's theme. Sargent's portrait of the Hon. Henry Cabot Lodge is the most important of the class—full of strength, ease, and dignity—the hands done with Sargent's characteristic power. Eight portraits by Cecilia Beaux show both her charm and power. Vonnob's painting of Dr. S. Weir Mitchell attracts by reason both of subject and treatment. Lockwood's Otto Roth in 'The Violinist' is vigorous and faithful.

Among the studies, Brush's 'Mother and Child' is easily first. One need not belong to any special cult to recognize the tender feeling for childhood that the painter has infused in this painting. Done in the soft olive and warm brown colors which this artist loves, the tone effect harmonizes with the feeling of mother and child in a painting true for all time. Two canvases are shown by J. J. Shannon, the present idol of the London artistic set—the altogether charming 'Miss Kitty' and 'Babes in the Wood.' The more important of these received the medal at the Pittsburg exhibition, where it was purchased for the Carnegie Art Galleries. Alexander, in his 'Pot of Basil,' suggested by

Keats's poem and recalling Hunt's drawing of the same theme, is especially strong in the painting of drapery. The beauty of line and color enhances the sadness and gentle dignity of Isabella, who is depicted standing, her cheek pale with mourning, pressed against the earthen pot in which moulders her lover's head. Frank Brangwyn shows two superb studies—a design for tapestry—an exquisite drawing of a nude figure leaning against a couch—and the 'Musicians.' Chase's 'Mona' is harmonious and beautiful. Robert Henri's 'Lady in Brown' is proof of the increasing power of a young artist of real talent. The same can be said of Miss Nourse for her 'Breton Girl,' of Gauley for his 'Val d'Aosta,' and Miss Oakley for her 'Brown Study.' In landscape the best work is shown by C. H. Davis, in a study called 'Flying Clouds.' His 'Early Autumn in the Adirondacks' is scarcely inferior. Barnard's 'Summer Rain' has caught with wonderful freshness the quality of the New England hillside. Birge Harrison is splendidly represented by a dozen oils and a large pastel, 'Evening on the Seine.' His best success is with 'Winter Morning' and 'Christmas Morning.' Edward F. Rook has genius and versatility, judged from his moonlights and from his 'On the River Laita,' a bold treatment of a river scene in glaring sunlight. Alexander Harrison returns from Paris with his customary sea scenes, including a charming 'Moonlight at Sea' and a red 'Sunset' that is not customary.

The work in water colors is in many instances superb. Herter's 'Danaïdes' is a drawing of the highest decorative value, beautiful in the mass and exquisite in detail. La Farge's sketches in Samoa and his 'Avenue to the Temple of Iyeyasu,' Japan, are strong in drawing and color and open-air feeling. Fromuth, in his 'In the Dock-Movement,' has caught with wonderful power the life of the scene. Eaton's 'Field of Sumach' has pervasive beauty. Of the miniatures, Miss Hill's are pleasing both in theme and treatment.

Among the sculpture, Charles Grafly's 'Symbol of Life' is the most serious. A bas-relief of 'Mother and Child' by Alexander Stirling Calder is beautifully modeled.

The exhibition is characterized by the presence of a strong architectural section, which exemplifies the growing unity of the sister arts of building and painting.

Brief mention of some few of the important works is, of course, not adequate to the merits of this exhibition, which is significant of a distinct forward movement among all our younger painters. The lessons of recent radicalism have been learnt, and the Academy exhibition of 1898 suggests confidence in the achievement of the immediate future.

**Mr. Surette's 'Eve of St. Agnes.'**

To those who take an interest in University Extension work, the fact that some of the most successful lecturers have met with equal, or even greater, success in the more difficult field of original creative composition, cannot fail to be a source of gratification. From a lower point of view this is seen to result in advertising the movement and making it better known, while from a higher basis, no surer proof could be presented that those engaged in the work are not mere tyros, but truly understand whereof they speak. An instance in point is that of the well-known lecturer, Mr. Thomas Whitney Surette, who is yearly becoming more prominent among our younger composers of the romantic school. An earlier work of his, a light opera named 'Priscilla,' has already had over five hundred performances, and a romantic opera, 'Cascabel,' is soon to be put on the boards. But we wish to speak here of his dramatic ballad, 'The Eve of St. Agnes,' a work that was given with great success last spring before the Melody Club of Philadelphia, and which, while this number of THE CITIZEN is going to press, is to be performed in Musical Fund Hall at a special meeting of the Browning Society.

The composition is, of course, founded on Keats's famous poem. Mr. Surette says that he had always been greatly attracted by the beauty of the poem, but that his idea of setting it to music had been discouraged by Professor Paine, of Harvard, on the ground that it would be difficult to get sufficient variety in the music, owing to the metrical construction, and this difficulty was afterwards found to be a real one. The young student abandoned the idea, for a time at least, partly on account of his lack of experience as to how so splendid a theme should be treated, partly by reason of the time and labor involved in the composition and production of 'Priscilla.' He came back to his favorite scheme, however, with renewed energy, and, as a test, composed one of the finest numbers of the score, the chorus 'Full on this Casement.' Satisfied with this experiment, he made a selection of lines from the poem, taking those portions which would make a continuous narrative and which were at the same time, as he thought, specially suited to musical treatment. The final result of his labors was a work which, while yet in manuscript, had several most successful performances, which later has been accepted and published by one of the best-known houses in Europe, the London firm of Novello, Ewer, & Co., and which will before long, in all probability, be greatly in vogue both here and in England among the numerous choral societies devoted to the study and production of compositions in the oratorio and cantata form. The 'Eve of St. Agnes' has the not inconsider-

able advantage of occupying only a portion of an evening, its performance not stretching beyond three-quarters of an hour. The voice parts are full of melody, and the orchestration is particularly rich and effective, so that popularity is simply a question of time.

A certain unity is given to the work by the use of typical themes, though no elaborate *leit-motif* system has been attempted. There is, for example, in the Prelude an ascending triplet followed by another note, typifying what subsequently occurs in the chorus 'The Frost Wind Blows'; also a very appealing phrase that is found later on in Madeline's arietta 'Oh, Porphyro!' and suggested in other places. In the Epilogue some of the principal themes are brought in in succession, sometimes with the character quite changed, as where the "argent revelry" music is echoed in a minor undertone to the words, "That night the baron dreamt of many a woe." There is a long A, too, that is heard in several passages throughout the work, which it seems to connect spiritually, though they are separated materially by long intervals. A short violin solo occurs at the end of the Epilogue that seems a sort of apotheosis of the whole story; the actual love scenes being over, we are imbued with the deeper significance of the flight and rapture of those two lovers "ages long ago."

The composition opens with a strikingly orchestrated prelude, entitled 'The Winter's Night,' in which, amid the wild sweep of the strings and the shrieking of the wood-wind, there is a particularly happy use of the French horn. A peaceful, hymn-like chorus follows, founded on the first stanza of the poem, and then we leave shivering animals and praying Beadsman for a burst of pomp, in which the use of the brass is tremendously effective. This revelry is prolonged through a chorus and a stately instrumental march, and then we come to young Porphyro, whose movements are described in a dignified male chorus and some ensuing recitatives. The exquisite chorus 'Full on this Casement' works up to a splendid climax at the repetition of the words, "And on her hair a glory like a saint," and the dissolving harmonies of the two succeeding lines. Several recitative passages follow, and then comes what to many will seem the gem of the entire work, a lovely and sympathetic arietta for Madeline, that increases in dramatic intensity to a superb burst of pain and passion—

"Oh, leave me not in this eternal woe.

For if thou diest, my love, I know not where to go!"

Then ensues a female chorus, 'The Frost Wind Blows,' a repetition largely of the material of the Prelude. A simple but very beautiful solo for Porphyro, 'My Madeline! sweet dreamer!'

passes into his excited summons, "Hark, 'tis an elfin storm from faery land," that grows very virile and impassioned at the words descriptive of the alien eyes and ears "Drown'd all in Rhenish and the sleepy mead." This is taken up by the chorus, and the finest ensemble of the work is produced by the alternation and blending of Madeline's and Porphyro's airs with the choral undertone—

"Hark, 'tis an elfin storm;  
Awake, arise and fearless be!"

Then, after a choral recitative describing the flight of the lovers, the Epilogue follows—

"And they are gone; ay, ages long ago  
These lovers fled away into the storm."

This is, as was said above, a summary of some of the principal themes and phrases, and brings the whole to a symmetrical and solemn close.

J. H. INGHAM.

### Letters to Dead Economists; III.

To David Ricardo, Esquire.

My dear Sir: Most authors would, I suppose, feel somewhat piqued to find that their works had been transmitted to posterity through the mediatorship of another. But you, sir, "the most modest of men," and the most distrustful of your powers of literary exposition, will not be disturbed at hearing that your system of political economy has reached us moderns mainly through John Stuart Mill's amplified version. On the whole you were fortunate in securing so accomplished a reporter, who has done for your system much what Milton has done for the Ptolemaic cosmogony. Though Mill did not publish his work until 1848, fully a generation after your 'Principles' appeared, he had early—"like one born out of due season"—been indoctrinated with your views, which he pretty faithfully reproduced, accompanying them with certain adventitious comments on social philosophy. Economic criticism, however, has gone back of Mill to the study of your own works, and since then the various pictures of yourself and your creed have changed with almost every passing phase or fad of economic opinion.

First of all, we learned to know you as the Infallible One, as the person of "superior lights," beside whom all others were altogether less than vanity. The dogma of Ricardian infallibility was held as a pretty essential article of orthodox economics, especially by its great high priest, John Ramsey McCulloch. We acquit you, my dear sir, very readily of making any such absurd pretensions to inerrancy. You were not afraid on occasion to change your economic opinions, just as in early youth you dared to change your religious faith. In strange contrast to the sublime egotism of Mill, who

declared that there remained nothing in the Laws of Value for any subsequent writer to clear up, and in contrast to the ever-repellent dogmatism of McCulloch, is the confession in almost your last letter to the latter: "I am not satisfied . . . with the account I have given of value. . . I despair of becoming more enlightened upon it by my own unassisted efforts." Many of your disciples, alas, attained absolute certitude at a very early age!

The next portrait, or rather the next caricature, of you was drawn by Professor Ingram in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Here you are depicted as the great Scholastic of political economy,—dealing in unreal hypotheses, devoid of historical knowledge, lacking in social sympathy, moving "in a world of abstractions," and like Shelley, beating your "luminous wings in the void." Nature, says Professor Ingram—who for a positivist has certainly a very intimate knowledge of Nature's designs—Nature intended you "rather for a mathematician of the second order than for a social philosopher." He even affirms that you betray no trace of "that hearty sympathy with the working classes which breaks out in several passages of the 'Wealth of Nations.'" Perhaps Professor Ingram never read your chapter 'On Wages,' where you say that the "friends of humanity cannot but wish that in all countries the labouring classes should have a taste for comforts and enjoyments, and that they should be stimulated by all legal means in their exertions to procure them." Perhaps Professor Ingram never read McCulloch's testimony to the fact that you contributed to every charity of the metropolis, and supported schools and hospitals in your own home at your own expense. Certainly Professor Ingram could never have read that letter of yours describing a continental tour where you write: "The enjoyment which I hoped to derive from my last journey was embittered by the sight of the miserable wretches who assailed me from all quarters."

It is hardly to be wondered at that the critic who has distorted your real views towards the laborer should assail your scientific reputation. Despite the fact that you moulded the economic thinking of half a century, and forged the weapons which razed the citadel of the Corn Laws, he has the audacity to assert that, currency and banking apart, we owe you practically nothing "either in the form of a solid theoretic teaching or of valuable practical guidance." Such is the impartial verdict of the great champion of the historical method whose critical canon seems to be summed up in the old saw, "When in doubt, kick Cobden."

The next movement in economic criticism was that of the Restoration, when your damaged portrait was restored by a number of rev-

erent hands. Your doctrines were "limited and explained" until they accorded with the definitive economic theory of to-day, and criticism became sympathetic and appreciative in tone and to your "faults a little blind." I confess that the value of this portraiture depends largely on the ability of the one who wields the brush. Who shall "rehabilitate" a lost infallibility? Is it not better to gaze on the temple "... majestic though in ruin," than to entrust to Aubrey Beardsley the task of restoring the Parthenon in his own admirable though peculiar style?

The latest portraits we have had of you depict you in the rôle of the Class Advocate—the Protagonist of the commercial classes as against the landed aristocracy. This was the view of Adolph Held, and is apparently the view of Mr. Cannon and of Professor Seligman. Mr. Cannon in particular represents you as primarily a pamphleteer, interested in currency reform and in the freedom of trade, one with whom "practical aims were paramount, and the advancement of science secondary," and whose *ex parte* representations have unexpectedly furnished the Socialists and the Single Tax advocates with their theoretical arguments.

That this portrait, like its predecessors, contains only a part of the truth is our conviction. It is doubtless true that the trend of your economic thinking was influenced by the political issues of your times. But whose is not? Your first and strongest impulse towards economic speculation, however, is said to be due to your perusal of the 'Wealth of Nations.' Though you generally assume the existence of private property and exchange throughout your works, your remarks on the sacredness of the rights of property in your 'Observations on Parliamentary Reform' show that you believed in legal rather than in the natural origin of property. It cannot then be correct to say, with Mr. Cannon, that "Ricardo, as became a stockbroker, took it [i. e., private property] for granted without any consideration." Besides, there are some weighty considerations against regarding you as merely the spokesman of your own class and its selfish interests. Not to speak of your sharp and frequent criticisms of the Bank of England and its management, there is the obvious difficulty with this theory that you say that you did not yourself know whether your own financial interests lay on the side of the landlords and high Rents or on the side of the commercial classes and high Profits. It is left for men living three-quarters of a century after you, and having, as you yourself once expressed it, "all the wisdom of their ancestors and a little more into the bargain," to speak with confidence on a point about your own property which would have puzzled a good accountant in your own day.

The truth is, my dear sir, that your chroniclers have failed to give us your likeness, by trying either to over-idealize yourself and your system, or by rushing to the other extreme of exaggerating some single feature so that the true proportions are lost. It is therefore misleading to represent you as dominated exclusively by an ambitious and far-reaching *a priori* method of speculation. It is misleading to say that your interests were preponderantly practical, when you grew increasingly interested in pure economic theory as your economic thinking matured. It is of course equally misleading to represent you either as infallible or as saying nothing which when amplified or explained cannot readily be made to square with economic truth.

If one were asked what was the most *original* part of the enduring economic structure you raised, there would be little hesitancy in pronouncing in favor of your theory of international trade.

If one were asked what was the most *original* contribution to definitive economic theory, I should be inclined to say it was your recognition of the fruitfulness of the principle of the imagined cost, and your use of that principle in economic analysis. It is true, of course, that you used the law of marginal cost mainly in the specific case of agricultural rent. It is true that the origin of this theory of Rent is due, as you yourself acknowledged to Malthus and West, and—as we now know—to Anderson also. But, still, economic science has justly, if unconsciously, christened the doctrine the Ricardian theory of Rent, because you were the first to recognize and to exploit its capabilities. Taken in conjunction with its counterpart—the doctrine of marginal utility—we obtain what is certainly a definitive theory of prices. And notwithstanding your ill-fated attempt to forecast by the law of Rent the distributive horoscope of your own age, there are those who still are hopeful that on the lines of marginal productivity we may yet obtain a satisfactory theory of distribution. *Exitus acta probat.*

Most of those who have held a brief to prove that your scientific activity was motivated by a single aim, fail, as it seems to me, to credit you with the large political sagacity which is your due. The political issues of your time were very much like those we confront in America to-day. The regulation of the currency and banking, and the question of foreign trade vexed the Parliament of England in the first third of this century, as they agitate our people at the present. The great difference between your times and ours is that the electorate in your day consisted of a few hundred wealthy gentlemen who practically appointed the members of the House of Commons, while our electorate is myriad-minded Demos. This differ-

ence in condition made your purchase of your seat in Parliament as commendable as your subsequent vote for the abolition of the corrupt system was heroic. Your attitude on almost every important issue of your day, the extension of the franchise and parliamentary reform not excepted, has been confirmed by the inevitable logic of subsequent legislation; and so we feel that there is danger that, while we extol you as an economist, we may forget the insight and courage you displayed as a publicist.

Adam Smith, I fancy, one could never have known very closely, unless one were a genius like Hume, and a Scotch genius at that. The "father of political economy" was, we are told, an awkward, absent-minded recluse, in company generally silent, but occasionally delighting the table with a brilliant monologue. But one could hardly have had more than "a listening acquaintance" with him, and I for one feel sure I should always have been more or less awe-struck and uncomfortable in his presence. Your friend, the Rev. Mr. Malthus, would have been rather more to my taste. But he was too portentously solemn, I fear, to suit my temperament. "Grave and gentle," Miss Martineau describes him, and Carlyle, it is suggested, would have dubbed him "a mild, pottering person," very estimable and worthy, no doubt, but by his demeanor always unconsciously suggesting to others the reflection that this life is only a state of probation for the next.

But you, my dear Ricardo, we know to have been very kindly and genial and full of life and spirits. Your "benevolent countenance and kindness of manner" were very attractive to young persons [so Stuart Mill tells us]. Miss Edgeworth describes you as in "face handsome and manners delightful . . . somewhat composed in demeanor, but so full of interest and vitality," and starting "perpetually new game in conversation." Your letters show you to have been intensely human,—interested in the prattle of children, laughing over the demure conversation of your little daughter Bertha, eager, as were all your household, after Scott's latest novel, indulgent to a fault, fond of travel, infinitely good-natured, readily imposed on by petty sharpers even when laughing in your sleeve at their rascality, hospitable, public-spirited, independent, rich. We hardly know whether to envy you your happy, busy, successful career, or to mourn over your untimely death at the height of your usefulness and power. I can close with no higher tribute than that which Mackintosh has paid you: "I have known Adam Smith slightly, Ricardo well, Malthus intimately. Is it not something to say for a science that its three great masters were about the three best men I ever knew?"

W. M. D.

## Reviews.

### Shakspeare and Elizabethan Sport.\*

Among the 'Literary Remains' of Samuel Taylor Coleridge there is a passage in which, after setting forth the qualities that made Shakspeare a poet, "his deep and exquisite sense of beauty, both as exhibited to the eye in the combination of form and to the ear in sweet and appropriate melody," the critic continues: "To this must be added that affectionate love of nature and external objects, without which no man could have observed so steadily, or painted so truly and so passionately, the very minutest beauties of the external world." Years after, Walter Bagehot took this passage as a point of departure for an essay, in which he contracted the *doctrinaire* who is "born with a kind of dry schedule or catalogue of the universe," to which he can refer all transactions, but who hoards his knowledge as a treasure not lightly to be expended, and the man possessed of "an experiencing nature," alive and alert to man, nature, and event, making everything his own at a glance, and lavishly giving of his wealth. Both critics quoted the famous stanzas of 'Venus and Adonis' which describe the coursing of the hare; and Bagehot adds in comment thereon: "It is absurd . . . to say that we know *nothing* about the man who wrote that; we know that he had been after a hare." In the charming and unostentatiously learned book before us, the author has pursued with minute and loving study the sports of hunting, hawking, and horsemanship, as practiced in the reign of Elizabeth, and gleaned much valuable and forgotten lore from the drama and the considerable library of books of that age, still extant, on these subjects. He has combined with this much practical knowledge and used all with the purpose of illustrating the "terms of art," within the range of these subjects with which the pages of Shakspeare are literally bristling. The results of this inquiry, it is interesting to note, are those which attend every expert in the application of his special knowledge to the interpretation of the words of the master-poet: a deeper reverence for the accuracy and breadth of Shakspeare's knowledge of men and things and confusion to the critics.

Vice-Chancellor Madden has clothed his learning in the pleasing garb of a supposititious contemporary authority, 'The Diary of Master William Silence,' "a lot of rubbish about lyme-

\*'The Diary of Master William Silence, a Study of Shakespeare and of Elizabethan Sport.' By the Right Hon. D. H. Madden, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Dublin. London and New York: Longmans, Green, & Co.

hounds, vauntlays, hunting at force, and hawking," as a supposed degenerate descendant of Master William is made to put it, found, as is customary in such cases, in an old lumber-room of an Irish castle, now hopelessly fallen in ruin. The dramatis personae of the 'Diary' are all old and approved acquaintances: Robert Shallow, Esquire in the county of Gloucester, Justice of the Peace and "Coram," Master Abraham Slender, his cousin, Justice Silence, his fair daughter Ellen, Justice Shallow's god-daughter, "a black ousel," and his son Master William Silence, "at Oxford still," in the 'Second Part of Henry IV.' There is likewise Will Squele, "a Cotswold man," whose honest yeomanly character is more fully sketched in Alexander Idem, the slayer of Jack Cade. Squele's house is "the moated grange at Saint Luke's," once the abode of Mariana in 'Measure for Measure,' and Squele's garden is furnished out with the deckings of several other plays. The neighboring Petre Manor supplies the better gentry in the persons of Master Petre, sometime known as Petruchio, his spirited lady, Katherine, and his brother Ferdinand, a fellow-student with Master William Silence at Clement's Inn. The scene is near Dursley in Gloucestershire, where dwelt for many generations a family of Shaksperes, and which spot a fleeting tradition assigns as the place of harborage in which William Shakspeare found refuge after the escapade—whatever it was—that forced him to leave Stratford. Lesser personages are Sir Topaz, now vicar of Dursley, formerly a chaplain in the household of a certain Lady Olivia; and Sir Oliver Martext, of the next parish, at one time close upon the marrying of one Touchstone to a country wench, Audrey, "under a bush like a beggar."

On first consideration of this device, the reader may well turn critical, and wish that Petruchio in his new English rôle might not have usurped so many of the lines of Falstaff, Jacques, or Master Ford. It is perilous to take such liberties as these, and Savage Landor's 'Citation of William Shakespeare' remains possibly the solitary instance in which the spirit of Elizabethan dialogue has been reproduced in this century with success. A gracious literary style pervades the pages of 'The Diary of William Silence,' and the cleverness of the author in adapting his device to the exposition of his real theme is abounding. His success in imitating Shakspearean speech is as great as could be expected under conditions which demand the quotation of brilliant bits of Shakspeare himself, courting comparison on nearly every page.

That Elizabethan literature is full of allusions expressed in "terms of art" is obvious

to the most casual reader. Aside from the trifles of dress, manners, and common speech which each generation partakes with the very air which it breathes, and which the next generation has totally lost and forgotten, there is, in every age, a large vocabulary of technical terms, arising from the professions of war, medicine, or law, and especially from the diversions of various classes. This vocabulary may be described as a penumbra partially eclipsing for the reader of the present the full light and significance of the thought of the past. This vocabulary, much like what we now call slang, was often forcible in the precise degree in which it was ephemeral. It is but a sad matter this groping about with the farthing-light of commentary, where we know that the broad day shone three hundred years ago. But this is one of the many penalties which we pay for our juniority; and it becomes us thankfully to accept whatever may lessen the gloom. Editors of Shakspeare from Pope and Theobald to the present day have sought, each in his own way, to explain these difficulties, and much has been done. Special books, which have treated Shakspeare from the vantage-ground of philosophy, divinity, ethics, law, or medicine, are many. There are books too on the rural life, the plant and animal lore, the ornithology and the angling of Shakspeare. (Of this last sport, Vice-Chancellor Madden, by the way, shows Shakspeare to have been little of a devotee.) But this is the first book which we have met, which, devoted to such a subject, contrives likewise to give a just and vivid picture of Shakspeare in his contact with animate nature. In reading its pages we have brought home to us how Shakspeare, as readily as Hamlet, might "know a hawk from a handsaw," when the wind was southerly; with Duke Theseus delight in "a cry of hounds,"

"Slow in pursuit, but matched in mouth like bells  
Each under each;"

or, like his Harry Hotspur,

"Witch the world with noble horsemanship."

It would be difficult to find a language so dead as that which dealt with the details of the keeping, training, and flying of hawks. Yet in the time of Shakspeare this language had a currency and consequent force far greater than the jargon that has arisen within the last few years (at least for us on this side the Atlantic) from the game of golf, or the less alien technicalities of cricket and foot-ball. It may not be undesirable to cull some of the curious information on this topic from the lucid exposition of the 'Diary,' especially as the notes to the many passages of Shakspeare, out of which they arise, are concerned each with a particular point, and we must go to works like Lascelle's 'Falconry of

the British Islands' or Freeman's 'How I became a Falconer,' if we would learn connectedly of the subject. The hawks used in falconry were of two kinds, the long-winged variety, or falcons, and the short-winged species, or hawks proper. The falcon was used to hunt in the open, rising from the lure in circles until "at full pitch" and "towering in her pride," whence she descended or "stooped" upon her prey. The short-winged hawk hunted from the fist and was used in the bush, pursuing her prey directly. Of falcons the chief were the gerfalcon, described as fit for a king, the peregrine, for an earl, the merlin, for a lady, and the hobby. The latter were used only for small birds, the hobby especially for larks. Of hawks proper there were the goshawk or estridge, described as fit for yeomen, the sparrowhawk or sparrow-hawk, for a priest, and the musket, according to Dame Juliana Berners, the sporting prioress of Sopwell, a century or more before the accession of Queen Elizabeth, fit only for "an holiwater clerke." The keeper of a falcon was a falconer; the keeper of a short-winged hawk was known technically as an astringer. Helena, in 'All's Well' in the folio, conveys her letter to the king of France by the hand of "a gentle astringer," a person fit for such employment and instantly so recognized by an Elizabethan. Some learned commentators have read: "A gentle stranger," and even the Globe text substitutes "a gentleman," "thereby missing a distinct and characteristic point."

The female of all species of hawks was preferred to the male, from her superior size and fierceness. Males were used, however, and were called terrels or tassels; the tercel-gentle was the male of the gerfalcon, the noblest species of falcon, and hence most appropriately employed by Juliet when applying the term to Romeo, she wishes

"for a falconer's voice,  
To lure this tassel-gentle back again!"

The eyas was a hawk born in captivity, or taken when a nestling, whence Hamlet's designation of a company of boy actors as "an aery of children, little eyases;" and Mistress Ford's combination of this term with musket, the least of trainable hawks, "how now, my eyas-musket, what news with you?" addressed to Robin, Falstaff's "little-foot-page." The eyas was of inferior courage, and was contrasted with the haggard, a hawk captured after the first moulting. An untamed haggard was the type of all that was fierce, wild, and difficult to control; but once manned, that is tamed by the various processes of seeling the eyes, watching (i. e., keeping the bird awake), and starving, and trained to the lure, the haggard became

the most valuable of falcons. The words of Petruchio of his beautiful but intractable shrew are peculiarly apt:

"My falcon now is sharp and passing empty;  
And till she stoop she must not be full-gorged,  
For then she never looks upon her lure.  
Another way I have to man my haggard,  
To make her come and know her keeper's call  
That is to watch her, as we watch those kites  
That bate and beat and will not be obedient."

Kites or puttocks, kestrels, buzzards and henharriers, "the *canaille* of the tribe," were despised, not only for their untamable qualities, but for their cowardice in the presence of the game. Hence the common Elizabethan application of all these terms to a poltroon, and Imogen's reply to her father when told that she might have married Cloten:

"I chose an eagle,  
And did avoid a puttock."

Shakspeare's use of the terms of falconry, like his use of the technicalities of woodcraft and horsemanship, is perfect in its accuracy, vivid in the imagery which it calls up, and at times exuberant and even impertinent to the subject in hand. The author of the 'Diary' contrasts the marvelous aptitude of Shakspeare in these particulars, an aptitude which it is inconceivable to suppose could have been acquired in any manner save by means of an ardent love of sport and frequent participation in it, with Heywood's highly bookish employment of similar terms in 'The Woman Killed with Kindness' and with Ben Jonson's confession to his friend, Henry Goodyear, after witnessing "a few days' sport:"

"Where I both learn'd why wise men hawking  
follow,  
And why the bird was sacred to Apollo."

He concludes with this remarkable statement: "It so happens that not one of the playwrights between whose authorship and that of Shakspeare controversy has arisen among the critics, gives any proof of practical interest in falconry, or in any other sport of the field."

In the Critical Notes, which form for the scholar the most important part of the book, the author has applied this quality of Shakspeare as a test to the determining of the plays and parts of plays which are his with results alike interesting and, in the main, probable. Thus a divided authorship of 'Titus' with some earlier dramatist is established, parts of the play being peculiarly full of allusions to the chase. A retouching of 'The First Part of Henry VI.' a share in 'Henry VIII.' and in 'The Two Noble Kinsmen' are disclosed by the application of this test; and the scenes of 'The Taming of the Shrew' and of 'Pericles,' in

which Katherine and Marina are respectively concerned, show in the occurrence of such "terms of art" the hand of Shakspeare. Amongst the plays more commonly designated Pseudo-Shakspearian, Vice-Chancellor Madden finds 'The Yorkshire Tragedy' and parts of 'The Birth of Merlin' alone exhibiting traces of Shakspeare's method in dealing with these subjects.

But by all odds the most important conclusion of this interesting inquiry is the added sanction which it gives to the authority of the folio of 1623, after all has been said, the only authoritative text of Shakspeare. "In no single instance," the author tells us, "has the authority of the folio been displaced by the results of my inquiries and . . . the knowledge thus obtained has often unexpectedly tended to support the testimony of its editors." Under these circumstances we heartily approve Vice-Chancellor Madden's defence of the editors of the folio, his animadversions on even the better modern texts, and his wish for a text of Shakspeare purged alike of their original imperfections and of those which have crept in through lost faith in the folio. The Vice-Chancellor does not seem aware, however, that in these conclusions he is following in the wake of the latest and the best of the editors of Shakspeare. More than ten years since, Dr. Horace Howard Furness took strong ground for the text of the folio as the foundation for all study, and since then, departing from his practice in the earlier plays, he has consistently reprinted the text of the folio as the text of his Variorum edition of Shakspeare, even where quartos exist and depart from it.

'The Diary of William Silence' is a beautiful specimen of the art of book-making, and a few reproductions of old wood-cuts appropriate to the subject are in excellent taste. We have detected few errors, though in the second note on page 265 a misplaced letter produces "wod" and "althrough" for "word" and "although." Theobald also appears phonetically spelled Tibbald on page 362. The classified indices might be advantageously thrown into one and enlarged by the addition of all proper names and titles of books.

FELIX E. SCHELLING.

### Joseph Chamberlain.\*

The editor of these speeches asserts that Mr. Chamberlain was always an Imperialist, even in the days when he was known only among his Birmingham friends as a successful maker of wood screws and as a speaker in the local

debating club. The general public on either side of the Atlantic cannot contradict him, but they can say that Mr. Chamberlain, with purpose or without, managed very successfully for a great many years to conceal his real character. When his star first began to appear above the political horizon, now some quarter of a century ago, he was universally regarded as representing the last extreme not merely of Radicalism but of provincialism and even parochialism. To the "stern and unbending Tories" of those days he was the abomination of abominations, the would-be destroyer of all that to them seemed most holy and sacred. It hardly seemed possible to them that even a Liberal cabinet could so far go astray as to give place to such a man. To-day this same man is the chief spirit in the strongest Tory cabinet of the century, and though ancient Toryism still looks askance at him, and grumbles audibly against the pace at which he is hurrying it along, it knows that it cannot possibly do without him and that its only hope of lengthy retention of office lies in faithful submission.

Mr. Chamberlain's career thus far falls naturally into three divisions. Inheriting from his father a splendid manufacturing business, he passed the first thirty-eight years of his life principally in amassing wealth and discharging the duties of various municipal offices in Birmingham, in both of which he was equally successful. Among the splendid group of British municipalities which serve as models to the world of good city government, Birmingham stands, if not at the head, certainly as high as any other, and owes her eminence chiefly to Mr. Chamberlain. His later achievements somewhat cast into the shade his efforts as a municipal reformer, but it is doubtful if a greater degree either of courage or capacity is required in dealing with the problems which now lie to his hand than was needed in the struggle to redeem Birmingham from the grip of the different monopolies formerly possessed of all the valuable franchises, to eradicate its slums, and to make it the model of successful civic-socialism that it is to-day.

From municipal politics the evolution into national politics was easy, but Mr. Chamberlain still continued an advanced and almost furious Radical. In the House of Commons in the years between his entrance in 1876 and the downfall of the Beaconsfield government in 1880, his advocacy of such measures of reform as Church disestablishment, compulsory secular education and the Gothenburg system of dealing with the liquor question, and the vigor of his attacks upon the "Jingo" policy of the government, marked him as a special object of aversion to the Tory party. From the first, however, there had been no question of his pre-

\*'Foreign and Colonial Speeches.' By the Rt. Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, M.P. London: George Routledge and Sons. 1897.

THE PENNSYLVANIA ACADEMY OF FINE ARTS  
SIXTY-SEVENTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION



Bas-Relief—*Alexander Stirling Calder*



Mother and Child—*George De Forest Brush*



The Breeze—*Henry Oliver Walker*



The Pot of Basil—*John W. Alexander*



Christ Exorcising the Possessed—*Sandor Leopold Landeau*



Portrait of Dr. S. Weir Mitchell—*Robert W. Vonnoh*



The Violinist—*Wilton Lockwood*



Lady in Brown—*Robert Henri*



Portrait of Miss Dorothy Harrison—*John Lambert, Jr.*



Three Children—*Frank W. Benson*



Portrait of Mrs. Eliza S. Turner—*Cecilia Beaux*



The Hon. Henry Cabot Lodge—*John Singer Sargent*



At Break of Day—*William A. Coffin*



The Lotus—*Louis Kronberg*



Dorothea Wynne—*Augustus Vincent Tack*



Joseph Asking Shelter for Mary—*Guy Rose*

eminent ability as a debater, and his previous career in Birmingham gave guarantee of equal power as an administrator, and accordingly his selection by Mr. Gladstone, on the change of ministry, as President of the Board of Trade was accepted as that of the right man in the right place; and the manner in which he took in hand and mastered the hitherto most vexatious and insoluble problem of a Bankruptcy law justified the belief.

Thus far his career had been uniform in faithful service in the Liberal party and attention to matters of purely domestic concern. But in 1886 came a startling change. Of all the men who were unable to accept Mr. Gladstone's first Home Rule Bill and seceded to form the Liberal-Unionists, unquestionably the most important politically was Mr. Chamberlain. Of the others, Mr. Henry James, the Marquis of Hartington, Mr. Goschen and the rest, able and influential as they undoubtedly were, all belonged to the Whig and aristocratic wing of the Liberal party, and were therefore open to the taunt that in joining forces with the Tories they were only going to "their own people." But no such charge was against Mr. Chamberlain, and it was largely the influence of his example, backed by his tremendous dialectic power, that carried the mercantile and manufacturing constituencies of the Midlands against Mr. Gladstone.

For the next few years, in which Home Rule still continued an imminent possibility, Mr. Chamberlain's position as one of the Liberal-Unionist body, having as its sole but complete *raison d'être* opposition to Home Rule, was an easy and comprehensible one. But with the disappearance, for the time at least, of that issue below the political horizon, the question of his political future and party affiliation became once more of interest. The rest of his Liberal-Unionist associates had become as completely and quietly absorbed in the ranks of the Tory party as though they had never been outside of it. But no such easy descent into obscurity was possible for the ex-Radical chief, brimming over with energy and ambition, and speculation was rife as to whether he would take office under Lord Salisbury, and if so what office. For his acceptance of a portfolio in the Unionist government Mr. Chamberlain has been much abused, but it is hard to see what other course was open to him. However dead for the time being Home Rule may be, it still weighs upon the Liberal party, and that party itself was and is so disorganized and split by factions, that no man could rely upon it for the support by which alone strong measures of reform can be carried. There was no reason in the nature of things why Mr. Chamberlain should turn his back, merely for the sake of a

name, upon the men with whom he had been associated for several years, provided they not only did not ask him to support measures to which he was opposed but could offer him an opening for active work in a congenial sphere, and fortunately just such an opening lay at hand in the Colonial Secretaryship. Imperialism was in the air. The Colonies were beginning to be the fashion. They had always been a sort of Tory hobby without that party doing anything for them, and on them Mr. Chamberlain could have a free hand without exciting the wrath and opposition in the party with which he had connected himself which he surely would have aroused by a similar activity in domestic reform. Mr. Chamberlain set himself to the task of improving Britain's "neglected estates" with great vigor, of which in part this little volume of speeches is some record.

His great contribution to the Jubilee celebration in organizing the visit of the Colonial premiers and Colonial troops, and obtaining for them so prominent a part in the pageant, did probably more than was ever done before to bring vividly before the British people and the world both the magnitude and the unity of the Empire. Though all of the speeches now published antedate the Jubilee celebration, that delivered on June 9, 1896, before the Congress of Chambers of Commerce of the Empire at London, contains the statement of the terms on which alone preferential trade within the Empire is possible, and is identical with what was re-stated at the London Conference of Colonial prime-ministers. Whether or not it is possible even on those terms, namely, free trade within the Empire, coupled with a tariff against the rest of the world, need not be here discussed. The very fact of its being put forward in clear-cut phrases in place of the vague generalities in which the Imperialists have hitherto sought refuge marks the difference between them and the man of action.

The addresses and speeches now republished are chiefly non-controversial and therefore give little indication of the power of dialectic and repartee which have made Mr. Chamberlain, with the possible exception of Sir William Harcourt, the most powerful debater in English public life of to-day, whether on the platform or in parliament. Of his power in this line a couple of speeches in parliament, and here republished, notably that on the proposed abandonment of Uganda, are excellent examples. But all of the addresses and speeches alike show his characteristic merits as a speaker,—his perfect command of his subject, the power to be at once concise and yet absolutely lucid, and a diction which, while eschewing anything in the nature of fine language, is as simple and unpretentious as pos-

sible, and always dignified and exactly adapted both to the matter in hand and to the audience addressed.

F. H. BELL.

### Hugh Wynne.\*

This novel, having appeared in the 'Century Magazine', is already widely known as an historical romance in autobiographical form, belonging to the class of which 'Henry Esmond' is the great type. Like Henry Esmond, Hugh Wynne tells a story of stirring times from the days of his youth upward. The period covered by the narrative is from about 1755 to 1783. Philadelphia is the scene, and various elements of social life are combined in the story. An unusually clear knowledge and conception of the city at that time, its scope, its landmarks, and its features, are shown throughout the book, which is as definite as an old print.

The fact that Hugh should be a Quaker and likewise Captain Wynne is accounted for by the title "Free" Quaker. This title indicates his departure with others of his generation from the older body of the Society of Friends, and his rejection, in order to take up arms for his country, of the rigid doctrine of non-resistance. The schism in the Society of Friends is better understood by means of this picture of the conflict in one man's soul, than it could have been by any merely historical account. Hugh says, "I have called myself a Free Quaker. The term has no meaning for most of the younger generation, and yet it should tell a story of many sad spiritual struggles, of much heart-searching distress, of brave decisions, and of battle, and of camp."

Historically, 'Hugh Wynne' is most to be valued for its virile presentment of Washington. To succeed in giving this conventionalized hero the blood, brawn, and temper of a man, as well as the more sanctified traits with which we are familiar—to warm into human realness his austere figure, which has loomed large but cold in history—that is a great achievement. It seems as though there had been the inspiration of special sympathy of temperament. One excellent passage, descriptive of Washington at Valley Forge, is followed by a fine comment on his character, which is a biography in little. It suffers by being cut, but parts of it must be quoted:

"The silence of history has been friendly to many reputations. There need be no silence

as to this man, nor any concealment, and there has been much. I would have men see him as we saw him in his anger, when no language was too strong; in his hour of serene kindness, when Hamilton, the aide of twenty, was 'my boy'; in this starving camp, with naked men shivering all night in their blankets by the fires, when he 'pitied those miseries he could neither relieve nor prevent.' Am I displeased to think that although he laughed rarely he liked Colonel Scammel's strong stories, and would be amused by a song such as no woman should hear? . . . This serene, inflexible, decisive man could be the venturesome soldier, willing to put every fortune on a chance. . . . Does any but a fool think that he could have been all these things and not have had in him the wild blood of passion? . . . He had a love for fine clothes and show. . . . Was he religious? I do not know. He might have been and yet have had his hours of ungoverned rage, or of other forms of human weakness. He had no tricks of the demagogue. He coveted no popularity. He knew not to seek favor by going freely among the men. The democratic feeling in our army was intense, and yet this reserved aristocrat had to the end the love and confidence of every soldier in the ranks."

The best writing of the book is here and in the interviews between Washington and Wynne, and André and Wynne, after André's capture. These are both picturesque and forcible.

Romantically the novel is not a moving one. Any hero who tells his own story has a difficulty to cope with; how is he to convince us that he is charming and handsome, stalwart and fearless, and also quite modest? Someone must mention these things;—unless, like Henry Esmond, who vaunteth not himself, he can leave the action of the story to reflect him, without artifice, without apparent concern. Hugh Wynne intersperses his memoirs freely with quotations from the diary of his warmest friend, Jack Warder, and so gives information which would not be graceful written in the first person. To be sure, good reason is shown for this use of the diary, and every care is taken to guard against the charge of egotism. Yet—this is not the story of a man who could whistle his vanity down the wind. A trifle of fine unconcern and a bit of humor would have made you more attractive to us, Captain Wynne. But we must remember that these are memoirs of youth written by a grave elderly gentleman, and their measured tone, and deliberate appreciations are fitting to the part.

Among the non-historic characters of the book, none is to be compared with Hugh

\*Hugh Wynne, Free Quaker: Sometime Brevet-Lieutenant-Colonel on the Staff of His Excellency, General Washington.' By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D. New York: The Century Company.

Wynne's Aunt Gainor. She is a racy creation. This fine Amazonian spinster, with her whims, her temper, and her magnanimity; so frankly mundane, so fond of cards, so shrewd in business, so feminine in prejudice, is the most important figure in Hugh's career. And at her house on Arch street, with its carved furniture and spindle-legged tables over-loaded with Chinese dragons, ivory carvings, and grotesque Delft beasts, we see the gay Tory life of Philadelphia; while at the house of the elder Wynne, Hugh's father, we meet the graver figures of the early Pembertons and Walns.

This book naturally attracts the attention of the Quakers and from one of their journals comes a searching and critical review. To them it seems "not merely a novel, but an argument, a polemic", and its summing up seems far from favorable to the Quaker system. Dr. Mitchell's representation of their society is accused of inaccuracy in spirit and detail. The practical inaccuracies can hardly be denied, since the challenge of the reviewer is confirmed at every point by Bowden's 'History of the Quakers in America'. To attribute slaves to a Philadelphia Friend as late as 1781 is an error, all records showing that their liberation by the Friends began in 1755, and was complete in 1776-8. Even the title of the book is a misnomer, as the hero twice states that although he left the older body of Friends, he did not join the Free Quakers, who formed a distinct organization. It was hardly just to portray Nicholas Waln as he appears in these pages; and other errors must be admitted.

The question of fairness of spirit towards a religious sect cannot here be fittingly discussed; but even minor matters, which do not affect the value of the novel, serve to illustrate the old saying as to eternal vigilance.

The hasty critic has appeared, as usual, to raise the cry that this is the great American novel. It makes, in fact, no pretension to greatness, but is a quiet narrative, rather cold, good in detail, well constructed and well sustained. Like some pieces of music which might be characterized in the same way, it shows more interesting features on a second reading than at first.

M. H. HARVEY.

### The Evolution of the Aryan.\*

The translator of Ihering's 'Vorgeschichte der Indo-Europäer' writes in the preface of the surprise and delight with which he read the original. To the enthusiasm which it inspired in him we are indebted for the admirable ren-

dering of it he has given us, a worthy tribute to the memory of the great teacher whom death claimed all too soon.

Ihering was professor of Roman Law at Göttingen, and this book, wide as its scope is, may be directly traced to his professional studies. "Il ne pouvait entrer dans un sujet sans l'élargir aussitôt. Derrière les problèmes particuliers, historiques et juridiques, il apercevait vite les problèmes généraux, philosophiques, et quittait bientôt les premiers pour les seconds, ne s'arrêtant qu'au dernier pourquoi."<sup>1</sup> Such a man's work could never be complete, but his writings<sup>2</sup> show clearly the method by which he would seek the solution of problems involved.

The inquiry which gives to the present book what unity it possesses is familiar in the writings of two generations. The kinship of the languages of the Hindus, Iranians, Greeks, Latins, Celts, Germans, Slavs, to name the most prominent of the group, shows that in earlier times these peoples dwelt together. Where the common home was, what degree of civilization the community had attained, and how the divisions arose that led to the wide dispersion of historical times, are questions that have been considered by students of language, of archæology, of early customs, and of physical anthropology. An admirable review of the discussion is given in Schrader's 'Sprachvergleichung und Urgeschichte,' translated by Jevons, with the title 'Prehistoric Antiquities of the Aryan Peoples.'

Ihering's theory is in brief as follows: In the lower valleys of the Hindu Kush once dwelt a populous nation of herdsmen whom we may call the Aryans. Unacquainted with towns, they lived in huts and tents, wore no clothing but bands of leather about the loins, and were ignorant of the working of metals. Of law, as distinguished from custom and religion, they had no conception. Peaceful, unambitious, unpractical, they possessed every feature by which we are accustomed to distinguish the Asiatic from the European. For some thousands of years they continued in their secluded home, but at length want, which is sure to overtake tribes ignorant of agriculture, compelled some to seek new pasture-lands. Many from the poorer districts, a few from the more favored, all young and strong, prepared to set out for the west, supplied with cattle by a popular decree. The time of departure was fixed for the early spring. The third week in February they performed for the last time the accustomed rites at the graves of their ancestors, on the twenty-second and twenty-third took leave of

<sup>1</sup> Bouglé, 'Les Sciences sociales en Allemagne.'

\*'The Evolution of the Aryan'. By Rudolph von Ihering. Translated from the German by A. Drucker, M.P. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1897. Pp. xviii, 412.

<sup>2</sup>'Geist des römischen Rechts': Der Zweck im Recht; Vorgeschichte der Indo-Europäer; Entwicklungsgeschichte des römischen Rechts.

their relatives and neighbors, and on the first of March began their journey. This lasted for three months; then the intense heat made further progress for the time impossible. Many such advances were necessary to bring the Aryans into their subsequent European homes. Often they may have settled for a considerable time; then again the more adventurous or needy pushed on. In the regions between the Dnieper, the Dniester, and the Danube they continued for at least several centuries. There they met and reduced to bond-service a race from whom they learned to till the ground. In time came exhaustion of the land, which they had not yet learned to manure; then Greeks, Latins, Celts, Germans, in this order, proceeded west in the traditional season; the Letts turned to the north, while the more prosperous Slavs remained behind. During the migration, and because of its necessities, the character of the people was transformed. Only the more energetic dared to leave their home, familiarity with military discipline trained them in obedience, the difficulties of the march developed the sense of individuality, and the share of the women in toils and dangers won for them their higher social position.

All this is set forth with rare happiness of style. Ihering's first principle is that we may find in apparently meaningless customs the conditions to which they owe their existence, and accordingly he proceeds to such a reconstruction of the past as will justify to us their establishment. His hopefulness and confidence attract his readers and lend an air of reality to the subjective world he bids us view. When the first wonder has passed away, and we look about us more carefully, we find the forms far less substantial than we had thought, and realize how slight are the materials of which they are constructed. Ihering was impatient of mere statements of fact regarding the past, and was eager to know their relations; but the very impatience that urged him on made him content, it would seem, with a very partial knowledge of the conditions. His own often-repeated warning not to read into the past the ideas of the present he has throughout disregarded: early Aryans and Semites alike in his pages act with a clearness of vision and a freedom from superstitious ideas surprising in view of their subsequent history.

The unreliability of Ihering's theories will not infrequently appear to the careful reader. A very few instances, sufficient for the purpose, may be cited here. On the assumption, contrary to fact, that the earliest of the Egyptian pyramids was of brick, he bases the theory, which cannot yet be tested, that the Egyptians learned from the Babylonians the art of building. The Sabbath he believes to have been in-

stituted in Babylonia to secure to the workmen a rest which the heat of the country made necessary, more than six successive days of labor proving harmful. Of the connection of the Sabbaths with lunar festivals and of their not always recurring in Babylonia at intervals of seven days, he has no knowledge or takes no account. In his account of the Roman *pontifices* he recognizes no meaning of *pons* but that of bridge. His picture of Aryan life in the undivided community is transferred from Zimmer's 'Altindisches Leben,' an account of the indications occurring in the early religious documents of the Hindus. The assumption on which he proceeds, that Indo-Iranian is the mother-language of Greek, Latin, and the rest, no scholar would regard as possible, nor does the book contain a single valid argument for ascribing to the migrating bands the Asiatic characteristics he assumes.

Many as the shortcomings of the work are, its translation must be welcomed gratefully. It is wonderfully suggestive, and will not only charm its readers, but encourage some at least to make further effort, convinced, like the author, that "science must attack" the problem.

A. W. STRATTON.

### Theism.\*

In these two lectures the author outlines the development of the conception of God from the time of Spinoza to the present day, and in the course of his historical analysis endeavors so to appreciate the relative values of the elements contributed by the several thinkers as to put before the reader a conception of God which, although confessedly inadequate, involves no contradictions and can withstand the scrutiny of a sceptical age.

To attempt an abstract of this admirable little book would be a wrong to its author. He has already condensed its contents to the utmost possible degree, although his clear thinking and graceful diction enable the reader to follow the argument without effort. But the conception of God which he puts before us may be briefly sketched.

Our knowledge of God is as true, nay, more true, than our knowledge of any material thing. All that we call material things are in a true sense parts of God; not that God is material, but that the material is spiritual; in the Universe about us we see God's thoughts crystallized; in the evolution of consciousness through the humbler forms of life to man, we see a progressive unfolding of senses which

\*'Two Lectures on Theism.' By Andrew Seth, M.A., LL.D., Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in the University of Edinburgh. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

reveal to the individual consciousness more and more of the Divine. In the mighty progress of the Universe, from fiery nebulae to suns and planets teeming with life, from suns and planets again to darkness, coldness and death, we discern faint gleams of the Divine Purpose; and in the moral law to which the human will in the course of evolution tends to conform, we see, as through a glass darkly, the very essential nature of the Will of God. We must not suppose that what we know of God is all there is to know. Doubtless God infinitely transcends all human capacity, and never can be adequately known. Yet our knowledge, though limited, is true, and the infinite ages of eternity, whither we are journeying, can do no more than increase it—they can never make it false.

WILLIAM ROMAINE NEWBOLD.

### Nippur.\*

The Babylonian expedition fitted out by the University of Pennsylvania is an achievement of which American scholarship has just reason to feel proud. Acknowledgement is due in the first place to the public-spirited citizens and friends of the University, who, with Dr. Pepper at their head, furnished the means required for the undertaking. It will come as a surprise to many to learn that upwards of \$70,000 was raised and expended. But that so large an amount was secured was due in great measure to the energy and earnestness of the one with whom the movement originated—the author of the volumes before us. All scholars and friends of science owe Dr. Peters thanks for the work that upon his initiative and under his guidance has been accomplished. A distinct and valuable contribution to knowledge has been made by the university's expedition, the proof of which is furnished by the narrative before us.

It was but natural that Dr. Peters should have been chosen to act as director of the expedition and it was equally natural that after two years, he felt obliged to relinquish the trust. An able successor was found in Mr. J. H. Haynes, whose narrative of the work done in continuation of Dr. Peters's labors is shortly to be published. In his narrative, Dr. Peters properly confines himself to the two years during which he acted as director. The most striking feature of this narrative is its readableness. Accounts of expeditions are not always interesting. They can be very dry, but Dr. Peters commands a most agreeable style and knows how to

carry his readers along with him. Moreover, he has a thorough control of his material. Large as it is, it does not overpower him, and one feels at every turn that Dr. Peters has made a thorough study of this material. It is this thoroughness which is no doubt responsible for the delay in the appearance of the work. Unpleasant as this delay may have been to the author, the student and general reader are the gainers by it. Instead of crude material, Dr. Peters has now given us an elaborated structure. Another advantage gained by the delay has been to furnish the director with an "objective platform," from which to view the history of the expedition.

To chronicle the doings of the members of the expedition was a most delicate task. During the first year Dr. Peters was accompanied by three Assyriologists, Professors Harper, Hilprecht, and Prince, Mr. P. H. Field as architect, surveyor and engineer, Mr. John H. Haynes as photographer, and Mr. Daniel F. Noorian as interpreter of the workmen, completed the party. It is Bismark who is reported to have said that when two Germans get together, there are apt to be three opinions on a subject. The consequences may be imagined when four scholars, each with a mind of his own and a couple of theories to boot, are thrown together, away from the haunts of civilized man. A scientific expedition without quarrels is a phenomenon that the world has yet to witness. One gathers from Dr. Peters's narrative that his expedition formed no exception to what has hitherto been the rule. The quarrels appear, indeed, to have preceded the expedition. Fortunately, they did not interfere with its success. It is, of course, a matter of taste how much of the personal element is to be introduced into a narrative that necessarily deals with persons. Tastes differ, and whatever Dr. Peters would have written on this part of the expedition, he could not possibly have satisfied all concerned; nor could any one else have succeeded in such a task. It is quite evident to the impartial critic that Dr. Peters has exercised wholesome self-restraint. Writing as he did several years after the close of his connection with the expedition as director, he could view the events of the past, perhaps not impartially, but dispassionately. He has performed this delicate part of his task as delicately as possible, and he has accomplished this by saying as little as possible. If he had said less, it might even have been better.

Leaving this part of the subject and coming to the narrative proper, Dr. Peters occupies three chapters in giving an account of the organization of the expedition, of the difficulties encountered in obtaining a permit (known as *Irade*) to excavate from the Turkish govern-

\*Nippur or Explorations and Adventures on the Euphrates. The Narrative of the University of Pennsylvania Expedition to Babylonia in the years 1888-1890. By John Punnett Peters. Illustrations and Maps. New York and London: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1897.

ment, and a chapter on scenes and life in Constantinople and surroundings. The three chapters might have been condensed into one.

It is interesting to note that Dr. Peters' interest in Babylonian expeditions dates back to 1884, when he secured \$5,000 from the late Miss Catherine Lorillard Wolfe, which fitted out an expedition under the direction of Dr. W. Hayes Ward. While this expedition failed to excavate, it did some valuable work in studying sites suitable for excavation. A portion of Dr. Ward's diary made during the expedition is included in Dr. Peters's first volume as appendix E. Dr. Peters might have stated that previous to the meeting of the American Oriental Society in October, 1884, when on motion of Professor Toy, a committee was appointed to raise funds for a Babylonian expedition, Professor Haupt of the Johns Hopkins University, had paid a visit to Professors Toy and Lyon at Cambridge for the purpose of talking over this very project of an American expedition to Babylonia.

The selection of Nippur, we learn from Dr. Peters, was due chiefly to suggestions coming from Berlin scholars. It proved to be an admirable site, but owing to a long delay in Constantinople in securing an irade and other circumstances, it was February (1889) before excavations were begun, and in the middle of April they were abruptly broken off by an attack upon the camp made by the Abbech tribe of Arabs, in revenge for the accidental murder of one of their number by one of the servants in the exploring party.

But Dr. Peters, not discouraged by such a catastrophe, was determined to continue his work for another year. The other members of the party had all lost confidence in Nippur. Dr. Peters stood alone in regarding it as a good site. The second season, when he was accompanied by Haynes and Noarian only, confirmed Dr. Peters's view. His success was even greater than he had dared to hope; and encouraged by this success, the Philadelphia committee engaged Mr. Haynes to continue the excavations for three years.

To give a full account of what Dr. Peters found would extend this notice beyond due proportions. The most important discovery was that of the old temple at Nippur, sacred to Enlil or Bel. The age of this temple has been traced back by Peters's discoveries to the fourth millennium B. C. It is perhaps too much to call this structure "the oldest temple of the world" but it certainly is one of the oldest. The temple area covered at one time eight acres. The chief edifice was a tower of several stages known as a *Zikkurat*, i. e., a "high place", which was begun about 2700 B. C., and continued to be a religious centre towards

which pilgrims flocked for over two thousand years. Grouped around the tower were numerous small buildings that served as store houses and as dwellings for the priests attached to the temple, and the like. The Babylonian temples were also great business corporations. They owned large tracts of land that were farmed for the benefit of the temple. The temple engaged workmen, lent out money, and sold and bought properties. In the temples, too, the official records of the general commercial transactions were kept. Dr. Peters was fortunate in finding many thousands of the clay tablets which contain these records. Through these tablets, when once published and deciphered, much light will be thrown upon the social conditions prevailing in Babylonia especially during the period of the Cassite supremacy circa 1900 to 1500 B. C., though many of the tablets belong to a period as late as the Persian control of Babylonia. Next to the temple proper, the most important structure was a remarkable court of columns unearthed by Dr. Peters. It was in this court perhaps that the pilgrims congregated and where religious ceremonies were conducted. The excavations at this point should have been conducted with greater thoroughness, but on the whole, the chapters in the book dealing with the temple structures constitute an important addition to Babylonian archaeology. In another chapter on the tombs and funeral customs of Babylonia we obtain for the first time a connected view of the manner in which the Babylonians disposed of their dead. Dr. Peters might have been more radical in his treatment of the cremation question in ancient Babylonia. The graves that he found belong to as ancient a period as any yet discovered, but nowhere did he find traces that the bodies were burned, either wholly or in part. Moreover, the destruction of the body even though it be by means of a sacred element like fire is so contrary to the views of the Babylonians regarding the existence led by mankind after death that, if conclusive evidence should be found to prove that cremation existed at any period, we may safely infer foreign influence. Meanwhile it is well to remember that the supposed evidence brought forward a number of years ago by some German explorers is far from conclusive. The age of the graves found by them was not accurately determined and it is not certain whether the charred remains of human bodies may not be due to accidental destruction by fire.

As a summary of what the Nippur expedition has accomplished, Dr. Peters's chapter on 'The History of Nippur' is to be recommended. He might have added to the material from references to Nippur in the literary remains of Babylonia, but it is certainly astonishing to see

how many details have been determined by the excavations alone. The general history of the old sacred city for a period of several millenniums is now known.

Lastly it is pleasant to record the generous manner in which Dr. Peters speaks of his successor, Mr. J. H. Haynes. He takes every opportunity to acknowledge his indebtedness to the work that Mr. Haynes did for three years after Dr. Peters resigned the directorship. While careful not to encroach on Haynes's domain, he properly avails himself of the subsequent excavations in interpreting the material found by him. He is equally ready to acknowledge the service rendered by Professor Hilprecht through the latter's publication of two volumes of inscriptions mostly found at Nippur. The only serious defect in Dr. Peters's narrative is a certain diffuseness. Through the disposition of the subject, he is obliged to go over the same ground twice and even oftener.

For Hamdi Bey, the able director of the Constantinople Museums, Dr. Peters has nothing but modest praise. Without Hamdi Bey's generous aid and unflinching interest, little could have been accomplished. Turkey is fortunate in possessing so efficient an official. That Dr. Peters also came into contact with officials who were not animated by the same motives as Hamdi Bey is surely not surprising. Such personages are to be found in every governmental circle; but one Hamdi Bey atones for the shortcomings of all the others.

It is gratifying to learn that a second edition of Peters's narrative has already been called for. He is to be warmly congratulated upon this success—well merited by the care and diligence he has bestowed upon his important and fascinating theme.

MORRIS JASTROW, JR.

#### THE WORD OF THE WATER.

(Written for the Dedication of the Stevenson Fountain in San Francisco.)

God made me simple from the first,  
And good to quench the body's thirst.  
Think you he has no ministers  
To glad that way-worn soul of yours?

Here by the thronging golden gate,  
For thousands and for you I wait,  
Seeing adventurers' sails unfurled  
For the four corners of the world.

Here passed one day, nor came again,  
A prince among the tribes of men.  
(For man like him is from his birth  
A vagabond upon the earth.)

Be thankful, friend, as you pass on,  
And pray for Louis Stevenson,  
That by whatever trail he fare,  
He be refreshed in God's great care.

—Bliss Carman.

#### Book Notes.

'For the Country' (The Century Company) is a small volume of Mr. Richard Watson Gilder's patriotic poems. Most of them are included in his larger volume entitled 'Five Books of Song,' but with the exception of one or two they cannot be said to belong to the first rank of his poetry. They exhibit, indeed, a fine and wholesome spirit of patriotism, and are characterized by a keen recognition of the true elements of individual and national greatness, but nevertheless to a great extent they lack the note that wins to the soul. In 'The Great Remembrance,' the best and most sustained effort in the volume, the following lines occur:—

"Echoes of deeds immortal, oh, awake!  
Tremble to language, into music break,  
Till lyric memory takes the old emotion,  
And leaps from heart to heart the ancient thrill!"

In these fine lines Mr. Gilder has given us the measure of his aspirations, and at the same time has unconsciously indicated his limitations as a patriotic poet. For example, the tributes to Lincoln, Grant, Sheridan, and Sherman are not unworthy of the "peerless four," but yet they excite intellectual rather than emotional pleasure. No one can read them and not recognize that Mr. Gilder has an unerring perception of the spirit that animated those noble men, and of the qualities that made them really great; but few, we imagine, will find in them much to excite their deeper feelings. There is not a line in these or any of the other poems in the volume that can offend a loyal Southern heart. Indeed, one can go farther and say that there are not a few lines that will win grateful appreciation from those who fought the losing fight. What could be truer and in better spirit than the following lines from 'The Great Remembrance'?

"Tell of that hour, for never in all the world  
Was braver army against braver hurled.  
To both the victory, all unawares,  
Beyond all dreams of losing or of winning;  
For the new land which now is ours and theirs,  
Had on that topmost day its glorious beginning.  
They who charged up that drenched and desperate  
slope  
Were heroes all—and looked in heroes' eyes!  
Ah, heroes never heroes did despise!  
That day had Strife its bloodiest bourn and scope;  
Above the shaken hills and sulphurous smoke  
Peace lifted up her mournful head and smiled on  
Hope."

'Spanish John' by William McLennan reads like a true story. It is full of the inconsequence that distinguishes real life from fiction, and is just such a tale as an old man might actually tell of the adventures of his youth. The years of his youth have been spent abroad—at the Scots' College in Rome, in the "Regiment Irlandia, in the Service of the King of Spain, operating in Italy," and finally in his native Scotch Highlands, whither he was sent by the Duke of New York with a sum of money for the relief of his brother, the unlucky Charles Edward, after the battle of Culloden. The book is full of Jacobite sentiment which occasionally bursts into song; there are delicate touches of humor and a goodly store of pathos; the Highland character is well drawn, and there is a sympathetic portrait of an Irish priest which is worthy of being hung "on the line."

Mr. McLennan's ability to put himself into the place of the speaker is not merely a question of using

the first person singular, he actually lives the life, as he tells it. His style is particularly terse and vigorous, perhaps too condensed in relating the Scotch adventures, but "Spanish John" McDonell, as an old man, is not likely to enlarge upon them; he merely states the facts as they occurred. It is upon his journey to Rome, as a boy of twelve, and his early battles with school boys and Austrians, that he dwells in loving memory and of which he gives the picturesque details.

The McDonell coat of arms stands out bravely upon the brilliant red cover of the book and the illustrations by F. de Myrboch are beautiful—too beautiful almost. One fancies his Highlanders look too refined and well-dressed. They are more the clansmen of the comic opera stage than the wild and rugged horde who in reality followed the fortunes of Bonnie Prince Charlie. (New York: Harper and Brothers.)

"The Copymaker", by William Farquhar Payson, is the intermittent diary of a singularly green young man who, having displeased his prosperous uncle by a forbidden match, secures a reporter's place on a great daily. When the uncle makes him sole heir and considerably dies, the hero cheerfully abandons his chosen profession and starts for a tour of the world. The chief episode of his brief journalistic experience is a detective case, which appears, promises well—and disappears in a provoking manner. On the whole how much more entertaining the printing-office was when "Gallegher" was office-boy, for he loved the work for its own sake and his "scoop" was convincing and worth having. The motto of the present book, taken from its own first chapter, declares "copy" to be "inky paper about to become inky type" and journalism after all to be only copy-making. Has this come to be true of the making of books as well? (New York: New Amsterdam Book Company.)

"The Secret of Hamlet", by Mr. South G. Preston (The Editor Publishing Co., Cincinnati), is not a book for the general reading public. The truths revealed in it are too esoteric to be grasped by any but the initiated. This is not so much the fault of the author, who does his best to open the mysteries, as of the subject he deals with. Some of the less recondite lore may perhaps be mentioned here as an inducement, to those who feel themselves competent, to study the deeper mysteries for themselves. "The word 'Hamlet'", the author tells us in the opening sentence, "reveals to the initiated the secret of the character of the hero". It is an anagram of the Icelandic Amlæth, which means the sea-toiler; and signifies, being resolved into the three parts of which it is composed, "the man hindered." "The first part is the letter 'H'. Its form suggests spirit—being formed of two perpendicular lines (||), united by one horizontal line (—), and thus forming the letter 'H'. It is an aspirate—a spirite, spirit—equivalent to breath, life. The name and form of this letter 'H' is that of a window, or place through which the light comes, the root and ideal meaning of which is to see, to behold—signifying Perception, the basis of all knowledge. 'H', then, is a spirit, with two I's; a double consciousness, one person. This is Man, a living spirit. 'Am' is the copula; 'let', of course, means hindered. So the very title of the play contains its meaning, which is, 'Man-am-hindered'." It is probable that this secret has long been known to the blameless Ethiopians, as the formulation of it reveals their peculiar idiom.

This is the initial revelation, from which the author proceeds to much profounder depths, whither the merely superficial reader of Shakspeare will hardly

care to follow him. At the risk of wearying the uninitiated I touch upon one or two of these darker secrets. "The esoteric meaning of Ophelia suggests her character in a poetic way. There is a primary and a secondary meaning hidden in the name. 'Ope' means open; 'helios' means the sun, and Ophelia would mean literally an 'open sun' or 'sunshine'. The secondary meaning refers to her mental Ophelia, or aphelia, and describes her condition when 'divided from herself and her fair judgment'. No word describes the character of Ophelia but 'sunshine'." This should go far to restore Ophelia (who has been rather harshly treated by some critics) to our favor. Another revelation that will startle many readers of Shakspeare is that there is a sequel to 'Hamlet' by the same immortal poet—namely—'The Tempest'. This presents Hamlet and his companions in the life after death. Hamlet is Prospero (but also Ferdinand), Ophelia is Miranda, Claudius is Caliban, and Gertrude is become the damn'd witch Sycorax. It is very grateful to our sense of moral justice to find the wicked king and queen in such a purgatory.

Mr. Preston has also made contributions of no little value to our knowledge of the sources of the plot. Besides the Danish source, already familiar to scholars, he points to the Greek story of Orestes and to the Roman tradition of Aeneas. The convincing point, in regard to the latter connection, is the identity of Polonius and Palinurus. "Palinurus, the pilot of the fleet of Aeneas, and his fate, when a human guide was indispensable, suggests Polonius, the pilot of the ship of Denmark—ship of state, and his fate, when King Claudius needed him most".—Is the spelling "Aeneas", which is consistently followed in the book, a mere printer's error, or is it a part of the revelation?

In spite of its modest preface, Dr. Wilcox's book, 'The Study of City Government', has a most ambitious purpose. In a little volume of less than two hundred and fifty pages the author attempts to state and to discuss the intricate problems of function, of control, and of organization of the modern municipality. In his preface he explains that "the outline which forms the basis of this volume was prepared in order to show people just what there is in city government that it is worth while to study," and later he accurately describes his book as "primarily an outline of problems which also contains some discussion and many illustrations." Written on these lines, 'The Study of City Government' reads like a well-kept note-book of a course of university lectures on municipal administration. It will not appeal to the general reader who does not bring to its consideration an aroused interest in the problems it discusses. On the other hand, it offers little to the advanced student of political science. But for the growing class that have an initial interest in municipal administration and a little knowledge of its problems, Dr. Wilcox's illustrated outline will do much to clarify and systemize thought. The author has read widely, and he thinks clearly. If, after further study, he gives us the comprehensive treatise which he foreshadows in his preface, it will doubtless be a most valuable contribution to the literature of municipal administration. (New York: The Macmillan Company.)

Many a man strikes the wall at random with his hammer and is under the impression that he hits the nail on the head every time.—Goethe.

The beautiful is a secret manifestation of secret laws of nature, which, without its presence, would have forever remained concealed.—Goethe.

## With the Magazines.

Henry Cabot Lodge is sure of many readers for his 'Story of the Revolution', the first installment of which appears in 'Scribner's'; men never tire of the deeds which made us a nation. An article by Aline Gorren tells of the literary circle over which presided Edmond de Goncourt, on the fly leaves of whose books *Carrière*, J. Tissot, Raffaëlli, and others were wont to draw the portrait sketches reproduced in the article. The strokes are few and the pencil blunt, but the drawings are instinct with life. A story by Lloyd Osbourne, though clever and amusing, has a brutally unpleasant ending, thus sustaining a past criticism of Stephen Gwynn: "No book of Mr. Stevenson's ever left a bad taste in my mouth: no book of the collaboration" (between Stevenson and Osbourne) "ever failed to do so." In 'Harpers' Laurence Hutton writes of the group of players Booth, Barrett, Florence, and Jefferon, whom he knew and loved; the illustrations are from unpublished portraits and rare photographs.

An article by A. L. Benedict in the 'Cosmopolitan', while making a little gentle fun of the present craze for genealogical study, considers that the fad has had a most happy effect in bringing the American people into close sympathy. Interesting to Philadelphians is the fully illustrated article by James M. Beck, who tells with civic pride of Stephen Girard and his college.

In 'Lippincott's' George Archie Stockwell discusses, without reaching a conclusion, the question of the existence of wolf-children. "Mowgli" has evidently roused new interest in this problem of the jungle.

The comments of the English press on the recent election in New York have called forth reply. In the 'Atlantic' Edward M. Shepard, accounting for the result, says that the intrusion of national issues into municipal politics had much to do with Tammany's plurality. He admits that another opportunity to reach an immediate and practical good has been lost, but thinks that our municipal politics show more plainly than ever before "a powerful and wholesome tendency." Truly Mr. Shepard is the man to take up a struggle when the enemy has neither fainted nor failed!

In the 'Forum', Simon Sterne, treating the same subject contends that the increase in the tax rate under the reform government made many voters hesitate to put their property into the hands of persons, "who, even from good motives, threatened

to continue an era of vicarious philanthropy at the expense of the tax-payers." Brander Matthews pleads that a drama be judged not as literature only, but in accordance with the principles of its own art. Not fully accepting M. de Brunetière's assertion that a play is under no obligation to be literary, he still insists that the first condition which confronts the dramatist is inexorable: he must please his immediate audience. The success of a play depends upon its fitness for the play-houses and players of its own time, its survival upon its literary quality.

The 'Arena' contains an admirable article on the political and commercial position of Canada by John D. Spence, who declares in opposition to Goldwin Smith that the United States can offer Canada nothing that she does not already possess.

In 'Municipal Affairs' Frederick S. Lamb urges the civic advantages of Municipal Art. He declares that art is needed not as a charity, but as an educator; moreover, that it can be made to pay. Professor F. J. Goodnow, discussing the relations of city and state, is in favor of the establishment of "Municipal Government Boards," which shall exercise supervision over the finances of the smaller cities of the state. "City government is business, not politics"; with this

motto the Merchants' Association of San Francisco organized about three years ago. J. Richard Freud shows what may be accomplished when business men take hold of municipal affairs. Dr. Frederick W. Speirs, writing of the Philadelphia Gas Lease, warns his readers that the episode is not an intelligent, deliberate verdict on the experiment of municipal control, but only one more proof of the power of aggregated capital in politics. William Draper Lewis, treating the same subject in the 'Quarterly Journal of Economics,' simply points out the facts of the case, the nature of the lease, the arguments used, and the character of the legislative body that made it. John Davidson inquires the reason why the silver agitation in the United States has not provoked a sympathetic movement in Canada, where similar conditions prevail. He finds that in that country the issue of bank notes is so regulated as to secure both stability and elasticity, which prevents the rise of discontent that leads to silver agitation. Garrett Droppers writes from Tokio on the recent adoption by Japan of the gold standard. This he views as imperiling the supremacy of Japanese commerce in the extreme Orient, which was gained while under a standard common to countries of the East.

In the 'Century' Leonard Huxley draws a delightful picture of the home life of his famous father. No lover of 'Water-Babies' can afford to miss the letters exchanged between grandfather and grandson on the absorbing question of the bottled water-baby. Gustave Kobbé's stories of everyday heroism should prove a good tonic for all who are suffering from loss of faith in humanity. If George Eliot is right, and "we prepare ourselves for sudden deeds by the reiterated choice of good or evil that gradually determines character", it is cheering to think of the daily choice commonplace men are making.

In this connection it may be noted that an anonymous writer in 'Blackwood's' declares that our latter-day humanitarianism tends to regard death and pain as the worst of evils, which "gospel of painlessness" may destroy virtues which we cannot afford to lose.

In the 'Gentleman's Magazine' the Rev. P. H. Ditchfield tells of books which have brought upon their writers loss of happiness, prosperity, and life. A remarkable fate befell one Theodore Reinking in the seventeenth century in Sweden. He was pardoned on condition that he eat his offending book, a feat which he actually performed, first reducing it to a sauce. A. J. Meeker contributes a most readable article on that exquisite yet stern spirit, Prosper Mérimée and his thirty years' correspondence with the "Unknown." The 'Pall Mall Magazine' has J. Holt Schooling's first paper on the Great Seal of England. H. W. Brewer writes and illustrates an article on Old St. Paul's viewed as to its size. If we may trust the figures of mediæval writers it was eighty feet longer than St. Peter's, Rome.

'Cornhill' opens with the first of a series, 'Fights for the Flag', by the Rev. W. H. Fitchett, this one concerning Sir John Moore at Corunna. Stephen Phillips claims for Byron a place after Chaucer, Shakespeare, and Milton on the ground of his range of power. He claims that Byron more read would be more esteemed.

In 'Macmillan's' Charles Whibley commends the scholarship and justice of W. E. Henley and T. F. Henderson for their Centenary Edition of Burns. They have spared no pains to discover the origins of Burns, for that poet expressed in perfect verse the vague experiments of chap-books and ballads.

In the more serious English magazines pan-Slavism, the Dreyfus case, and the Engineers' strike just concluded have each their share of notice. In the 'Contemporary' George Washburn describes the Russian *moujik* as patient, obedient, brave and hardy, in-

tensely religious and capable of any sacrifice for what he considers his duty; to be sure he is dirty, ignorant, improvident, and fond of strong drink, but he becomes impressive when the fact is noted that there are seventy-five millions of him ready to obey a single will. An anonymous writer on the labor troubles declares that in the consumer's interest arbitration must become compulsory.

The 'Fortnightly' has an astonishing article by Mme. Novikoff on Russia as the physician of Europe, attending assiduously all affected with the malady of Parliamentarism and called to that office because she has protected the principle of personal government and has been witness to the truth of autocracy. E. J. Dillon treats the struggle of religions and races in Russia statistically and draws the conclusion that the Russian people is not only increasing in numbers but is being kneaded into a compact homogeneous mass. Lucien Wolf considers that anti-Semitic feeling is responsible for the miscarriage of justice in the Dreyfus case. E. Austin Fairleigh, reviewing the case in the 'Westminster' refuses to believe that anti-Semitism, strong as it is, could have moved the body of French officers who presided at the trial. He contrasts the procedures of English and French Courts Martial. Samuel Fothergill considering the great strike in the light of past troubles suggests as the

only remedy that masters keep their works open and give notice that no unionist will be employed.

The 'Nineteenth Century' opens with several papers on the condition of the British army. Of much interest are personal reminiscences of A. H. Clough by Thomas Arnold. The Princess Kropotkin relates the struggles and attainments of women in Russia in the direction of higher education. Parish life in England before the Conquest is described by Dr. Jessop. Holt T. Hallett in treating of the partition of China cries for a policy for the Far East befitting Great and Greater Britain and for a statesman who will carry it out.

Sidney Webb has a capital review in the 'Revue de Paris' of the whole labor struggle. One main cause of the trouble, in his opinion, lay in the fact that the engineers' union is not abreast of modern ideas; he considers that a permanent settlement will be reached only when the conditions of work are frankly considered as a matter of mutual contract.

In the 'Revue des Deux Mondes' Bouquet de la Grye urges that Paris be made a seaport by improving the channel of the Seine to Rouen. In 1795, Carnot of the Committee of Public Safety, appointed a commission to investigate the possibilities of the river and the arguments advanced in the subsequent report might be repeated with equal force to-day.

## American Society of University Extension.

### LECTURE ANNOUNCEMENTS, WINTER, 1898.

At the time THE CITIZEN goes to press, the following courses are definitely arranged.

#### CENTRES IN PHILADELPHIA.

Afternoon Lectures . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . .	The Crusades . . .	Jan. 10, 17, 24, 31, Feb. 7, 14.
Afternoon Lectures . . .	Bliss Perry . . .	Representative Novelists and Short-Story Writers . . .	Feb. 21, 28, Mar. 7, 14, 21, 28.
Association Local . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . .	City of Paris . . .	Jan. 11, 18, 25, Feb. 1, 8, 15.
Association Local . . .	John C. VanDyke . . .	Italian Art . . .	Mar. 1, 8, 15, 22, 29, Apr. 5.
German town . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . .	The Crusades . . .	Jan. 7, 14, 21, 28, Feb. 4, 11.
Kensington . . .	Robert E. Thompson . . .	American Literature . . .	Feb. 4, 11, 18, 25, Mar. 4, 11.
Peirce School . . .	E. D. Warfield . . .	American History . . .	Feb. 21, 28, Mar. 7, 14, 21, 28.
South Philadelphia . . .	Frederick H. Sykes . . .	Victorian Poets . . .	Jan. 27, Feb. 3, 10, 17.
Touro Hall . . .	Clyde B. Furst . . .	English Novelists . . .	Jan. 3, 17, 31, Feb. 14, 28, Mar. 14.
West Philadelphia . . .	Louis Bevier, Jr. . . .	The Greek Drama . . .	

#### CENTRES OUT OF PHILADELPHIA.

Altoona . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . .	The Crusades . . .	Feb. 17, 24, Mar. 3, 10, 17, 24.
Atlantic City, N. J. . . .	Frederick H. Sykes . . .	Victorian Poets . . .	Feb. 1, 8, 15, 22, Mar. 1, 8.
Braddock . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . .	The French Revolution . . .	Feb. 22, Mar. 1, 8, 15, 22, 29.
Burlington, N. J. . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . .	The Crusades . . .	Jan. 8, 15, 22, 29, Feb. 5, 12.
Camden, N. J. . . .	Frederick H. Sykes . . .	Victorian Poets . . .	Jan. 10, 17, 24, 31, Feb. 7, 14.
Cumberland, Md. . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . .	The Crusades . . .	Feb. 23, Mar. 2, 9, 16, 23, 30.
Harrisburg . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . .	The Crusades . . .	Jan. 6, 13, 20, 27, Feb. 3, 10.
Harrisburg . . .	Thomas W. Surette . . .	Great Composers: Romantic Period . . .	Mar. 3, 10, 17, 24, 31, Apr. 7.
Hazleton . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . .	French Revolution . . .	Jan. 5, 12, 19, 26, Feb. 2, 9.
Moorestown, N. J. . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . .	The Crusades . . .	Jan. 10, 17, 24, 31, Feb. 7, 14.
New Rochelle, N. Y. . . .	Thomas W. Surette . . .	Great Composers: Classical Period . . .	Jan. 21, Feb. 11, 18, Mar. 4, 18, 25.
New York . . .	Thomas W. Surette . . .	Great Composers: Romantic Period . . .	Jan. 12, 19, 26, Feb. 2, 9, 16.
New York . . .	Clyde B. Furst . . .	The Greater English Novelists . . .	Jan. 10, 17, 24, 31, Feb. 7, 14.
New York . . .	Henry W. Elson . . .	Between the Two Wars . . .	Jan. 8, 15, 22, 29, Feb. 5, 12.
New York . . .	Henry W. Elson . . .	Between the Two Wars . . .	Mar. 3, 10, 17, 24, 31.
New York . . .	Frederick H. Sykes . . .	Victorian Poets . . .	Feb. 24, Mar. 3, 10, 17, 24, 31.
New York . . .	Edward T. Devine . . .	Franklin, Hamilton, Jackson, Lincoln . . .	Jan. 10, 24, 31, Feb. 7.
New York . . .	Edward T. Devine . . .	Franklin, Hamilton, Jackson, Lincoln . . .	
Norristown . . .	Thomas W. Surette . . .	Great Composers: Classical Period . . .	Feb. 10, 17, 24, Mar. 5, 12, 19.
Pittsburgh . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . .	The Crusades . . .	Feb. 21, 28, Mar. 7, 14, 21, 28.
Pittsburgh . . .	James E. Keeler . . .	Astronomy . . .	Jan. 10, 17, 24, 31, Feb. 7, 14.
Salem, N. J. . . .	Thomas W. Surette . . .	Great Composers: Classical Period . . .	Jan. 18, Feb. 1, 15, Mar. 1, 15, 29.
Somerville, N. J. . . .	Thomas W. Surette . . .	Great Composers: Romantic Period . . .	Feb. 14, 21, 28, Mar. 7, 14, 21.
Tarrytown, N. Y. . . .	William H. Goodyear . . .	Debt of the XIX Century to Egypt . . .	Jan. 14, 21, 28, Feb. 4, 11, 18.

## Annual Report of the Treasurer of the American Society of University Extension.

We present herewith the Report of the Treasurer of the American Society of University Extension for the year ending December 31, 1897.

The Society is steadily growing in its influence and opportunities to extend literary and scientific learning. Its policy, more than ever, is to encourage those Centres in which work has been done previously to continue their activities, in order that the instruction given may be most thorough and systematic. At present the proportion of the old Centres in operation is larger than ever before, an even more encouraging sign than the acquisition of a great number of new centres.

A list of the guarantors and subscribers for 1897 is published below. This year, owing to the continued financial depression which has cut off some of the sources of income of the Society, it has been found necessary to call for a larger percentage than usual of the Guarantee Fund.

### I. CENTRE ACCOUNT.

The Society engages lecturers for the Centres and collects the lecturers' fees and expenses, together with a small fee for the Society.

RECEIVED ON ACCOUNT OF LECTURE COURSES.		PAID ON ACCOUNT OF LECTURE COURSES.	
Lecturers' fees . . . . .	\$11,802.25	Lecturers' fees . . . . .	\$ 9,151.31
Lecturers' expenses . . . . .	718.69	Lecturers' expenses . . . . .	1,548.46
	<u>\$12,520.94</u>		<u>\$10,699.77</u>

Net gain to Society, \$1,821.17.

### II. SUMMER MEETING ACCOUNT.

The Summer Meeting of 1897 resulted in a loss to the Society. Its expenses were provided for chiefly through income from tuition fees, and subscriptions.

RECEIVED FOR SUMMER MEETING.		PAID OUT FOR SUMMER MEETING.	
Tuition fees, subscriptions, etc. . . . .	\$2,421.20	Lecturers' fees, printing, advertising, etc. . .	\$3,672.14
			<u>\$1,250.94.</u>

Net loss to Society, \$1,250.94.

### III. PRINTING AND PUBLICATION ACCOUNT.

The Society edits and prints syllabuses for its lecture courses, and publishes a monthly magazine, *The Citizen*.

RECEIVED ON ACCOUNT OF PRINTING . . . . .	\$911.02	PAID ON ACCOUNT OF PRINTING . . . . .	\$3,496.59
			<u>Difference to be paid by Society, \$2,585.57.</u>

Against this item there is a considerable offset, though it is difficult to determine exactly its amount, in the increased stock on hand of syllabuses and plates from which future editions may be printed.

### IV. GUARANTEE FUND OF 1896.

A portion of the Guarantee Fund for 1896 was not paid until 1897, and therefore appears on the books of this year.

RECEIVED ON ACCOUNT OF GUARANTEE FUND, 1896 . . . . .		PAID ON ACCOUNT OF 1896.	
	\$1,815.00	Printing bill of 1896 . . . . .	\$1,584.71
		Loan, 1896, repaid . . . . .	500.00
	<u>\$1,815.00</u>		<u>\$2,084.71</u>

Balance to be paid from 1897 account, \$269.71.

### V. LIBRARY FUND ACCOUNT.

The Society purchases books which it sells to Centres.

Received for books . . . . .	\$41.54	PAID for books . . . . .	\$25.62
			<u>Net profit to Society, \$15.92.</u>

## VI. GENERAL FUND ACCOUNT.

RECEIPTS.		PAYMENTS.	
Society's fees . . . . .	\$ 460.00	Salaries (officers) . . . . .	\$2,675.42
Membership fees . . . . .	1,352.00	Office expenses . . . . .	2,393.98
Subscriptions . . . . .	1,035.00	Rent . . . . .	500.00
Miscellaneous . . . . .	91.96	Organizing expenses . . . . .	103.05
Endowment . . . . .	50.00	Endowment (deposited in Philadelphia Saving Fund) . . . . .	50.00
Cash balance from 1896 . . . . .	741.01	Miscellaneous . . . . .	501.49
	<u>\$3,729.97</u>		<u>\$6,223.94</u>

Difference to be paid by Society, \$2,493.97.

## SUMMARY.

I. Centre account . . . . .	\$1,821.17	
II. Summer meeting account . . . . .		\$1,250.94
III. Printing and publication account . . . . .		2,585.57
IV. Guarantee fund, 1896 . . . . .		269.71
V. Library fund account . . . . .	15.92	
VI. General fund account . . . . .		2493.97
	<u>\$1,837.09</u>	<u>\$6,600.19</u>
Amount necessary to settle accounts for 1897 . . . . .	4,763.10	
	<u>\$6,600.19</u>	<u>\$6,600.19</u>

The unfavorable circumstances mentioned in the beginning of this report make it necessary for the Board of Directors to call for 90 per cent of the Guarantee Fund, to meet the obligations for the year. The current expenses for 1897 were provided for from time to time by advanced payments on account of the Guarantee Fund.

FREDERICK B. MILES,

*Treasurer.*

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1897.

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